

**THE
HISTORY
OF
HUMAN
DISSECTION**

LINDEN F. EDWARDS

THE HISTORY OF HUMAN DISSECTION

LINDEN F. EDWARDS

Prepared by the Staff of the
Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County
1955

One of a historical series, this pamphlet is published under the direction of the governing Boards of the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE SCHOOL CITY OF FORT WAYNE

Mrs. Sadie Folk Rehrls



W. Page Yarnelle, Treasurer



B.F. Geyer, President

Joseph E. Kramer, Secretary



Willard Shambaugh

PUBLIC LIBRARY BOARD FOR ALLEN COUNTY

The members of this Board include the members of the Board of Trustees of the School City of Fort Wayne (with the same officers) together with the following citizens chosen from Allen County outside the corporate City of Fort Wayne.



James E. Graham



Mrs. Glenn Henderson

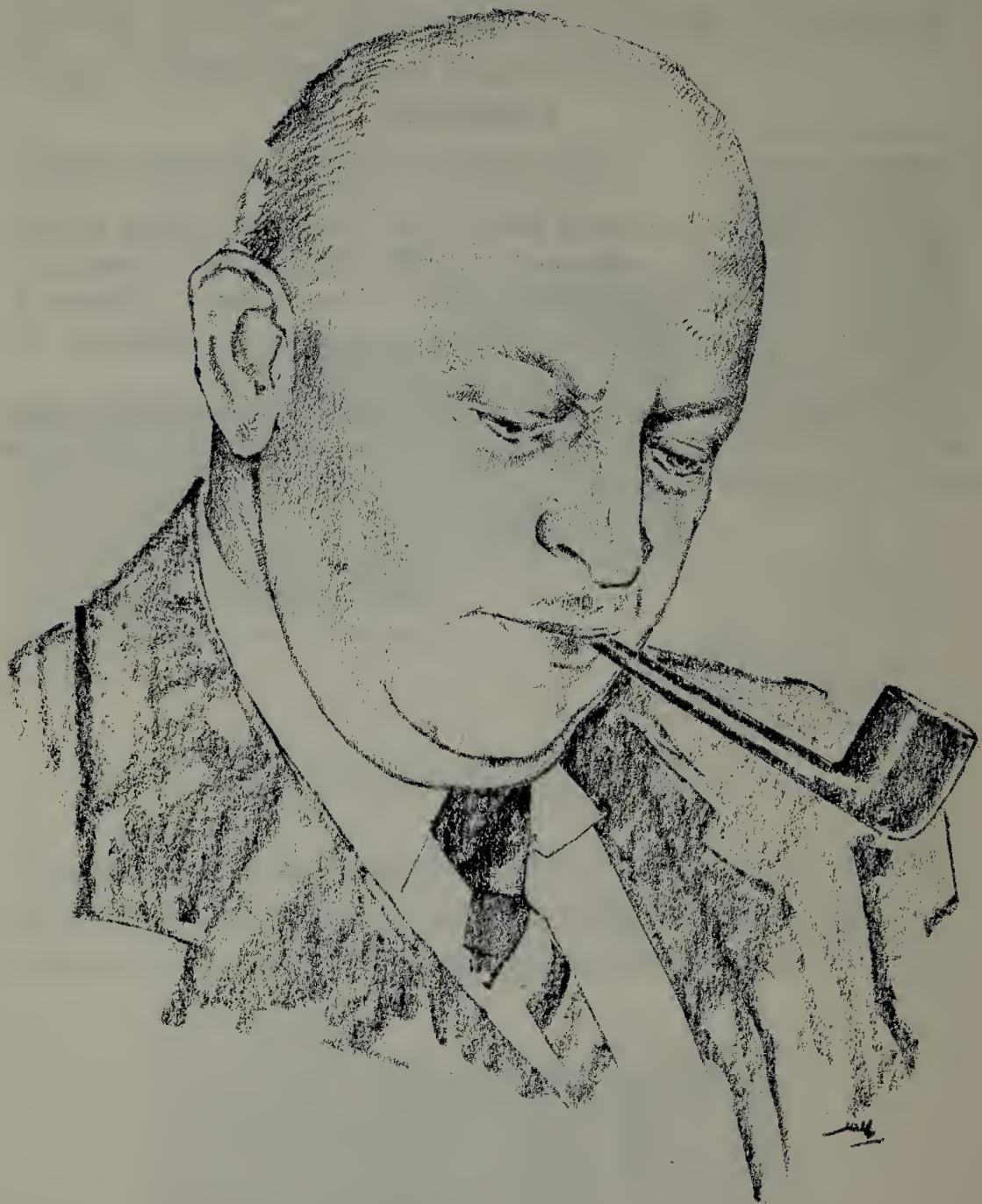


Mrs. Charles Reynolds

FOREWORD

This paper, outlining the story of human dissection through the ages, originally appeared in THE OHIO STATE MEDICAL JOURNAL, volume 40, April, 1944. The author, Linden F. Edwards, has graciously granted permission to reproduce the article.

The Boards and the Staff of the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County present this publication in the hope that it will interest local readers.



Linden F. Edwards

The son of Albert R. and Mary E. (Hare) Edwards, Linden Forest Edwards was born in Lewisville, Ohio, on November 25, 1899. He received the bachelor of arts degree in 1922 and the master of science degree in 1923 from Ohio State University. Dr. Edwards continued graduate study at the University of Michigan, the University of Illinois, and Ohio State University. In 1928 the degree of doctor of philosophy was conferred on Linden Edwards by Ohio State University.

Dr. Edwards has had considerable experience in the teaching profession. His former positions follow: instructor in zoology, Ohio State University, 1923-25; instructor in anatomy, University of Illinois, 1925-29. Since 1929 he has served in various capacities in the College of Medicine at Ohio State University.

Dr. Edwards is a member of the following professional organizations: International Association for Dental Research, American Association of Anatomists, Ohio Academy of Science, Columbus Dental Society, American Association of the History of Medicine, and the Franklin County (Ohio) Historical Society. He was a member of Sigma Xi, Omicron Kappa Upsilon, and Gamma Alpha. He is also a past president of the Ohio Academy of Medical History.

Linden F. Edwards has published several books: *ANATOMY FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION*, *CONCISE ANATOMY*, and *SYNOPSIS OF ANATOMY*. He has also written the chapter entitled "Anatomy" in Trapozzano's *REVIEW OF DENTISTRY FOR STATE BOARD EXAMINATIONS* and has coauthored the chapter entitled "The Maxillary Sinus" in Orban's *ORAL HISTOLOGY AND EMBRYOLOGY*. He has also published scientific papers in the field of human anatomy. In recent years he has developed an interest in the history of medicine, particularly in the history of anatomy.

Dr. Edwards married Elizabeth Smith on September 2, 1925, and has one daughter. He currently holds the post of professor of anatomy in the College of Medicine at Ohio State University.

The history of science portrays not only the development of science per se, but it also throws light upon intellectual and social history in general. This truism is especially evident when the history of human dissection is traced in a chronological manner. Analysis of the status of human dissection in any given period reveals rather faithfully the social and intellectual conditions of that period, because of the interrelation of the methodology and the nature of the subjects employed. In short, the history of human dissection is a story of the conflict between a deep-rooted human tendency to protect the dead and the scientific spirit which demands human subjects for dissection. This paper is an attempt to outline that story for the benefit of the present generation of medical students, who, as Corner ('30) aptly expresses it, put their hands to a task which other men dread and join the company of those who have laid aside the deepest fears and prejudices of mankind, to seek in the dead bodies of their fellows some increase of knowledge wherewith to fight the ignorance and disease that laid them low.

FIRST RECORDS

The beginnings of human dissection, like the advent of anatomical observation and knowledge, are veiled in obscurity due to the lack of authentic records. Although we date the birth of Anatomy as a scientific discipline, like so many other branches of science, back to Grecian civilization, it is common knowledge that the Greeks were preceded by Oriental civilizations; e.g., the Egyptians, Babylonians, and Hindus, from whom they derived a certain heritage.

From the scanty evidence at our disposal, we can only infer that these Oriental peoples possessed some body of anatomical knowledge. The principal and most authentic sources of our knowledge of Egyptian anatomy are the medical papyri, some of which date back to 1500 B.C. These not only describe certain surgical procedures demanding considerable anatomical knowledge, but they also give accounts of the structure of the human body, however bizarre they may be. Antedating these medical documents are cer-

tain hieroglyphics dating as far back as 4500 B. C., which are said to represent the heart, trachea and lungs, and the female reproductive tract. Moreover, certain of their works of art, such as amulets and engravings on vases and the walls of tombs, suggest that they had some access to human anatomical sources. It is well known that Egyptians practiced the art of embalming. The claim has been made, however, that in spite of this established fact there is little likelihood that they carried on human dissection or that the practice of embalming could have resulted in their acquisition of much anatomical knowledge, since the Egyptians held as odious anyone who did violence to the human body. In fact, we know from their description of the ceremony of embalming that the "parachiete" or cutter who made the initial abdominal incision for the removal of the viscera was of the lowest caste and was held in great aversion even to the extent of being pursued by the angry spectators and pelted with stones.

In the absence of sufficient evidence to the contrary and in view of the fact, as historians emphasize, that the universal oriental attitude toward the human body was that the corpse was abhorred, shunned, and considered unclean, it does not seem likely that the Orientals practiced human dissection.

THE CHINESE

Even though the ancient Chinese civilization did not likely influence Grecian civilization, it is of interest to point out here that human dissection was practiced by the Chinese as early as 2500 B. C., as evidenced by the oldest Chinese medical classic, the Nei Ching or Canon of Medicine, which contains the statement: "the human body may be dissected and observations made as to the size of the organs, the capacity of the blood, and the amount of pneuma." The weights and measurements of the various organs are then enumerated.

In regard to the status of human dissection during the "glory of the Greeks! who first didst chase the mind's dread darkness with celestial day" (Lucretius) it is an open ques-

tion whether or not their superstitious respect for the dead or their stringent laws regarding immediate burial prevented dissection of the human body. Included among the various works of the Hippocratic Collection, composed between 500 and 300 B.C., appear the earliest complete anatomical treatises on record, some of which tend to show that if the writer had not practiced human dissection he was at least familiar with some form of post-mortem examination.

It is generally conceded that even Aristotle (384-322 B.C.), who is accredited variously as the founder of Natural History, the Father of Comparative Anatomy, and the great codifier of ancient science, never dissected the human body. As evidence for this, it is pointed out that his famous work "The History of Animals," which describes the organs of lower animals and compares them with man, contains so many inaccuracies in human anatomy as to render impossible the idea that he ever could have practiced human dissection. The name of Aristotle is, however, linked with an important chain of events in the history of human dissection. His influence over his famous pupil, Alexander the Great, resulted in the latter's encouragement of the biological sciences in all the countries he conquered, an encouragement which was eventually climaxed in the founding of the great Library and Museum of Alexandria, Egypt. After the fall of Alexander's empire, the center of learning moved across the Mediterranean to Alexandria, where anatomy first became recognized as a distinct science and where for the first time in recorded history human dissection was openly permitted by the reigning king, Ptolemy Soter I, one of Alexander's former generals to whom Egypt was bequeathed. History tells us that the first anatomists to have been granted this rare privilege were two members of the medical faculty; namely, Herophilus and Erasistratus (300 B.C.), the achievements of whom inaugurated what is referred to as the "Alexandrian period" (300 B.C.-200 A.D.) of Anatomy. The names of these two pioneers in human dissection were linked with a scandalous accusation by writers, as late as 400 A.D., who accused them of having practiced vivisection of condemned criminals by royal permission. Critics have long occupied

themselves in answering this charge, proof of which is doubtful. It is quite probable that these charges originated in the popular imagination, which has always been more or less prejudiced against dissection of the human body.

PTOLEMAIC DYNASTY

With the final extinction of the Ptolemaic dynasty by the death of Cleopatra (30 B.C.) and with the absorption of Egypt into the Roman Empire, anatomical study at Alexandria began to wane. Although it remained for many years the chief center of anatomical teaching and attracted many students from all parts of the known world, human dissection had ceased by the middle of the second century A.D. Its practice was not revived anywhere till the rise of mediaeval universities during the 13th century.

During these thousand years of darkness, anatomy fell prey to monastic medicine, when the Christian Church, through her monasteries, closed down medical schools and prohibited human dissection under pain of excommunication. Throughout this period, the Christians perfected a way of thinking, now termed Scholasticism, which is characterized by deep respect for authoritative statements. Of the many students who came to Alexandria to receive training in Anatomy was Claudius Galen (130-200 A.D.), the last of the great line of Greek physicians and philosophers, and whose writings were destined to control man's knowledge of his structural self for 1300 years. This amazing fact becomes all the more impressive when it is realized that his descriptions of human structure were compiled without benefit of dissection of the human body. Authorities cite as evidence for this that human dissection had ceased at Alexandria at the time of Galen's attendance there and that his works describe for the human body structures peculiar only to lower forms, such as the ape and ox. The explanation offered for the survival of his works throughout the Dark Ages is that his philosophical ideas were in agreement with the theological attitude of the Church, along with the lack of independent observation and investigation.



Claudius Galen

THE SALERNO SCHOOL

The earliest medical school to be founded in Europe was at Salerno, Italy—a name now familiar to every American, since everyone is aware of the establishment there of a bridgehead by the gallantry and bloodshed of the American Fifth Army. Although a medical school was established there as early as the year 900 and it remained for many years the medical center of all Europe, there was, however, no practical anatomical instruction, since the atmosphere was scholastic and the texts used were Arabic translations of Galen's works. Revival of the practice of human dissection occurred rather at Bologna in northern Italy, where, it is claimed, was founded the first institution in existence to which the term university can be rightly attached. It appears first in history as a Law School, although an organized Medical Faculty existed there as early as 1156. Since the Medical Faculty was under the jurisdiction of the Law Faculty, it seems probable that opening of the human body at that university began as public or semipublic post-mortems for the purpose of gathering legal evidence. The earliest records of these public dissections place the date at about 1300. As time went on these post-mortem examinations, always under the watchful eye of a monk and jurist, passed into anatomical study, which, however, did no more than to verify Galenic anatomy. In case discrepancies were observed between Galen's descriptions and the actual structure of the organs exposed, they simply passed it off by arguing that the structure of the human body had changed since the time of Galen.

To Mondino de Luzzi, or Mundinus (1270-1326), a professor of medicine at Bologna, belongs the credit for restoring the practice of human dissection into the study of medicine. He is the first teacher known to have taught anatomy from the human cadaver, and even the exact date is known when the practice was resumed. The body was that of an executed criminal, which was dissected January, 1315, in public. In 1316 Mondino published his "Anathomia," which was in reality a manual of dissection combined with an ex-

planatory text. Although it was full of Galenical errors, it remained a standard textbook on anatomy for 200 years. Physicians and anatomists everywhere should pay homage to Mondino, not simply because he is with justice called the "Restorer of Anatomy," but because of the courage he displayed when he risked not only the deep seated prejudice of the people, with their superstitious respect for the dead, but also the opposition, authority, and direct hand of the Church, which opposed human dissection because it believed it to be a desecration of the human body. It should also be emphasized that Pope Boniface VIII had issued in 1300 a famous papal bull excommunicating anyone who dared to cut up a human body. This was commonly believed to include dissection for anatomical study, although recent investigation tends to show that the papal bull was issued in an attempt to stop the practice among the Crusaders of cutting up the bodies of distinguished persons who died in the Holy Land and of boiling the bones in order to better transport them to Europe.

MONDINO

From the time of Mondino throughout the 14th and 15th centuries, the practice of human dissection in public slowly gained recognition in the universities. The authorities at first closed their eyes to the practice and took no action in the matter until at last feeling became so strong in the medical centers that the desired official sanction was obtained to dissect publicly two bodies a year in each center of medical instruction. It is interesting to note that the first ecclesiastical authority to give official sanction to the practice was Sixtus IV (Pope 1471-1484), who himself had been a student at Bologna and Padua.

Another fact concerning Mondino that should be emphasized is that he dissected in person, for which reason he is deserving of more credit and esteem than his successors until Vesalius. As human dissection became officially recognized and included in the medical curriculum, the occasions evolved into elaborate affairs attended by oftentimes hun-

dreds of spectators and conducted with much ceremony. The professor in charge, quite unlike Mondino, occupied in truth a chair, which was an elevated structure provided with steps and a reading desk much like a pulpit. From his high position he read a standard text, either Galen's or Mondino's, while an ostensor pointed out the lines of incision and a medical demonstrator, commonly a barber-surgeon, performed the actual dissection. In spite of the facilities offered the medical schools for obtaining human anatomical material and with the limitations imposed by the formalities of public dissections, anatomy made little progress during the next two hundred years.

In the meantime Europe experienced an intellectual awakening, now referred to as the "Renaissance," which was due in great measure to the invention of printing about the year 1450 by Johann Gutenberg of Mainz, Germany, and to the introduction of wood engravings, as a result of which books were cheapened and culture was spread broadcast. Thus began a revolution in education, to which the term "Humanism" is applied, characterized by a spirit of individualism and of the arousal of curiosity in matters hitherto neglected. Human life and this world came to be viewed as things good in themselves and not merely as a means of preparation for the world to come, as was emphasized during the Middle Ages. A new and exaggerated interest was taken in the classical authors; and under the impulse of the new love for learning, the libraries of the monasteries of Europe were ransacked; and many lost classics were recovered. The recovery of ancient classics had its effect on the study of Medicine, notably Anatomy. By the 16th century all the medical classics that we now possess, including the anatomical works associated with the names of Hippocrates, Aristotle, and Galen, had been recovered and translated into Latin versions. As a result of these translations, there entered Anatomy a large number of Latin terms still in use. The immediate reaction of anatomists to the recovery and translations of the Greek scientific texts was marked by a keener appreciation of Galen's writings, so that, for the time being, anatomy was served not so much by the scalpel as by



FROM HIS HIGH POSITION HE READ A STANDARD TEXT.....

scholastic traditionalism.

THE FIRST TEXTBOOK

One of the first changes to be noted in Anatomy was the publication in 1521 of a book entitled "Commentary on the authorized textbook of Mondino" by Berengario da Carpi (1470-1530), Professor of Surgery at Bologna. This book is of great interest in that, in the first place, it was the first textbook of anatomy to contain illustrations of the subject matter described; in the second place, both Galen and Mondino are subjected for the first time to independent critical examination; and in the third place, it described for the first time the vermiform process, the arytenoid cartilages, the thymus, and the larger proportional size of the male chest and of the female pelvis. Berengario is thus credited as the first independent anatomical investigator of modern times. He is said to have performed many dissections and at first received great honour. However, the old ghost of popular prejudice soon raised its ugly head, and he was accused of having dissected some living Spaniards in order to observe the movements of the intestines — thus illustrating the moribund state of anatomy during this period.

Although the great artists of the Renaissance period, notably Michelangelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci, had only a limited influence on the progress of anatomy, it is of interest here to emphasize that they all used the scalpel to improve their art; and most of them left drawings of their dissections. The anatomy notebooks of Leonardo are of especial interest in that they contain over 750 red-chalk drawings of his own dissections, which are marvels of observation and insight. Unfortunately his manuscripts remained hidden until recent years; otherwise they might have advanced the progress of Anatomy by centuries.

VESALIUS

During the middle of the 16th century, destiny sent a man who by his own efforts revolutionized the practice of

dissection. That man was Andreas Vesalius (1514-1564), who is credited as the originator or "father of modern anatomy." While a medical student at the University of Paris, he resolved to exert all his powers and means to the revival of anatomy and to raising the standards of dissection. His zeal for dissection was manifested when, at the third dissection he attended, he took the scalpel and, shoving aside the barber-surgeons, served as demonstrator. At Padua, where he obtained his degree in medicine, he was appointed Professor of Surgery and conducted regular public dissections in the anatomical amphitheatre, continuing the practice of dissecting with his own hands and using his students as assistants rather than the clumsy barber-surgeons. He also betook himself into the sanctum of his own laboratory, away from public gaze, and there dissected many bodies, many of which are said to have been obtained in an illicit manner. He devised his own instruments; and most important of all, he cast aside Galenical traditions and substituted his own original observations, compiling notes and making sketches. These he published in 1543 under the title of "Da Fabrica humani corporis," which contained 663 pages illustrated with many woodcuts. Following the publication of this book, he became the target of criticism by his fellow anatomists who refused to accept his findings because they were contrary to Galen. He could not endure this bigoted opposition so, giving up anatomical studies, he accepted the post of court physician. Like his predecessors who had pioneered in dissection, he was accused of human vivisection. Eventually, however, his influence on anatomical methods was felt and served to stimulate intensive investigation in the subsequent years.

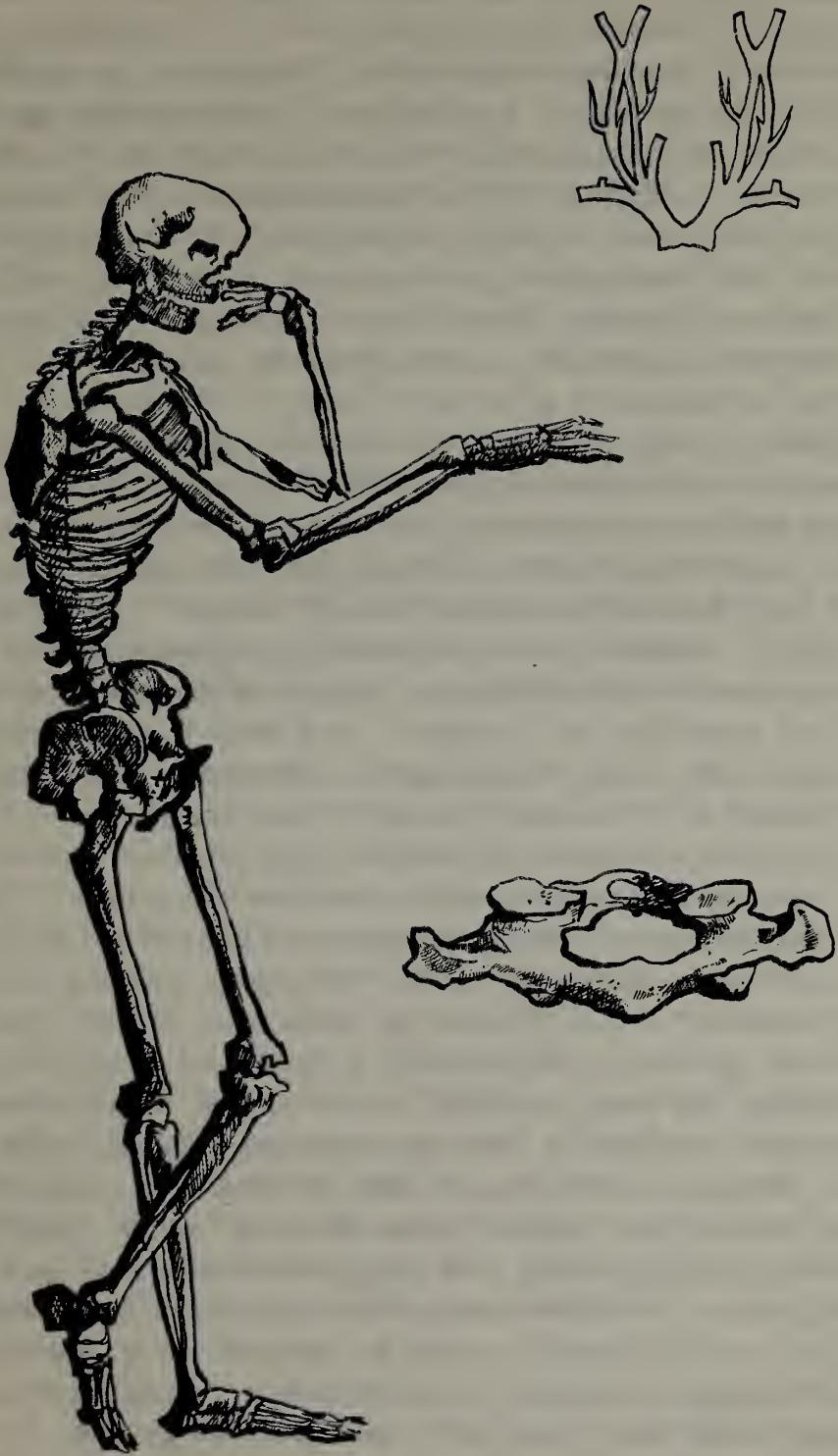
The 17th century is characterized as an age of great advance in human anatomy, particularly in the discoveries and descriptions of internal organs, many of the popular names of which survive to this day as memorials to their discoverers. Many technical procedures of anatomical study were invented and improvements made in methods of illustrating details of dissections, such as copperplate engravings.

By the 18th century most of the gross features of the human body had been worked out; and anatomical dissection had been well established all over Europe, the supply of cadavers being ample for frequent demonstrations. During this century the approach to human anatomy underwent a change from that of descriptive to that of operative or surgical anatomy. Up to this time human anatomy had been taught by demonstrations on the cadaver by the professor or a prosecutor. But now operative surgery was undergoing rapid development and was passing out of the hands of barbers into those of skilled and educated surgeons. In order to acquire surgical skill, it was necessary for the student to have, along with technical precision, perfect memorization of the body parts. This need led to the regional and topographical approach which now characterizes the method of dissection. This need of practice in dissection resulted not only in the reorganization of anatomy courses in the medical schools but brought about extramural anatomical schools, such as that of William and John Hunter in London, where the students did their own dissecting.

DISSECTION IN ENGLAND

In England as early as the 16th century, the need for dissection material led to the passage of a law by Henry VIII authorizing the barber-surgeons the use of four bodies of executed criminals each year. The great increase in the number of students attending the medical and anatomical schools toward the end of the 18th century in England, Ireland, and Scotland resulted in a severe shortage of cadavers. As there were no public regulations to supply the demand until the passage of the Warburton Anatomy Act in 1832, the practice of body snatching and grave robbing was resorted to.

It is not the intention of the writer to indict or justify the anatomists of this period for their methods of obtaining dissection material. However, it should be pointed out, for the sake of record, that as a result of the urgent necessity for bodies to supply the ever increasing demand of the rap-



VESALIUS

idly expanding medical and anatomical schools, and of the long delay of indifferent governments in legalizing the use of unclaimed dead for dissecting purposes, in spite of the appeals of the medical profession, the anatomy professors were forced to obtain subjects for dissection by other than legal means. Under such circumstances there came into being professional "resurrectionists," who engaged in the repulsive and nefarious business of providing the schools with cadavers by the systematic robbing of graves. This resurrectionary period, characteristic of the 18th and 19th centuries, presents a gruesome page in the history of human dissection, a page besmeared with the deeds of men marked by greed, avarice, and crime, including even murder. Much has been written concerning the escapades, exploits, trickery, and ingenuity of these "body snatchers," and space will permit only a brief account here of some of the "tricks of the trade." Bodies were sometimes stolen before burial. One ingenious trick was that a man would steal a dead body which lay awaiting an inquest and sell it to an anatomist. Whereupon, the man would give information to the police where to find it. The body would be restored to the coroner, who, after the inquest, turned it over to "relatives." The latter generally turned out to be confederates of the man who had stolen it, and the corpse would be resold to the anatomist. Women were often confederates, posing as a "sorrowing mother" or a "bereaved widow." Under such guise they would go to an anatomical school and there with much grief claim the body of child or husband, which they would remove and take to the next anatomical school to be resold. Or if a pauper lay dying in the workhouse, a hospital, or lodging house, they would claim the body as a relative, or, simulating philanthropy and pity, would offer to pay for his humble grave. Another use which women often served was to go to a newly made grave to mourn as a "disconsolate relative" and, incidentally, to cut the wires leading to a spring gun, which had been planted to protect the grave.

GRAVE PROTECTION

Numerous methods were employed to protect graves; such as, watchtowers, iron coffins, and "mort safes," or strong iron grating. The latter device proved of no avail, because the resurrectionists simply dug a sloping tunnel and drew up the coffin by means of iron hooks. The tunnel was then refilled; and the unsuspecting relatives who came to weep over the apparently untouched and well-protected grave mistook the recently disturbed turf nearby as a newly made grave.

The gravediggers themselves oftentimes sold bodies, and they could usually be bribed or made intoxicated. It became the custom to employ a private watch over a new-made grave, and the watch was often in league with the grave robbers. Violent fights between the watchers and the gang of thieves sometimes took place; but the fights were usually between rival gangs, rivalry between them being very intense.

Failing to obtain dead bodies, some of the more reckless and avaricious body stealers resorted to murder — the most famous case being that of Burke and Hare, who, in 1827-28, committed sixteen murders and disposed of the bodies of their victims to Edinburgh anatomists. Their victims were made drunkenly unconscious, during which condition they were suffocated, or "burked," to use an expression coined at that time, in order that no marks of violence appear on them. When these crimes came to light, the fury ran so high against the anatomists, who were looked upon by the public as a party to the crimes, that their lives were endangered. Hare turned state's evidence; and Burke, having been found guilty, was hanged; and, befittingly, his body was dissected. His skeleton now adorns the Anatomical Museum of Edinburgh University, as mute evidence of the results of legal obstruction to and popular prejudice against human dissection during the "resurrectionary period" of anatomy. This state of affairs in Great Britain eventually culminated in the passing of an Anatomy Act (1832) legalizing dissection of all unclaimed bodies by the medical and anatomical

schools.

The history of human dissection in the United States during the 18th and 19th centuries closely parallels that in Europe for the same period. Prior to the establishment of medical schools, private courses in anatomy, including demonstrations, were offered by practitioners who had acquired their medical and anatomical training abroad. During this period the young aspirants to medicine who could not afford to study abroad received their training in medical practice through the apprentice or preceptor system, which furnished no opportunity for practical dissection of the human subject. The private anatomy courses at first and short medical courses later provided the apprentices this much needed opportunity.

THE FIRST AMERICAN LECTURES

The first recorded private lectures and demonstration in Anatomy held in this country were by Thomas Cadwalader in Philadelphia (1730). The next recorded instance was in 1762 when William Shippen, Jr., who had studied under John Hunter of London and obtained a medical degree at Edinburgh, returned to Philadelphia, his native city, to practice and inaugurate a course of anatomical lectures and demonstrations using the body of a Negro who had committed suicide. Dr. Shippen subsequently became the first professor of Anatomy and Surgery (1765) in the first Medical School in the United States; namely, the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania.

Organized anatomical instruction elsewhere during the 18th century followed close on the heels of Pennsylvania. Next at King's College (now Columbia University), then at the University of Maryland, and then at the College of William and Mary. Eventually medical schools were established throughout the country. Unfortunately, however, the various states which chartered or otherwise recognized the medical colleges at first made no legal provisions by which the colleges could secure indispensable human material for dissection, as a result of which "body snatching" and "grave



King's College, New York

robbing," as in Europe, was resorted to.

The United States was not without a "burking" case, for in 1886 three Negroes were accused of murdering an old white woman. They sold her body to the University of Maryland Medical School and were sentenced to be hanged. Here, as in Europe, popular prejudice and the horror of human dissection often incited mob violence. For instance, the building in which Dr. Shippen held his anatomical demonstrations was attacked several times, and the Doctor was often forced to flee under a shower of missiles. In 1788 popular prejudice against dissection in New York City culminated in the celebrated Doctor's Mob, when several rioters were killed. During the same year a mob invaded a private anatomical school in Baltimore and stole away the body which was being dissected.

Doubtless, few medical students of the present generation are aware that a medical college existed at Worthington, Ohio, at one time. It was called The Worthington Reformed Medical College and in the autumn of 1830 was the scene of a riot brought on by the disappearance of bodies from the Potter's field. Suspicion pointed to this College, and when an infuriated mob arrived to search for the bodies, President Morrow, seeing that resistance was useless, surrendered and agreed to close the college.

THE HARRISON CASE

An incident of great interest was the Harrison case, which occurred on May 30, 1878, at the Medical College of Ohio in Cincinnati. On that date John Harrison, brother of Benjamin Harrison, who was subsequently President of the United States, visited the medical school, armed with a search-warrant, in search of the body of William B. Devin, a young friend of the Harrison family, who had died a few days previously and whose body had been stolen. He failed to find any trace of the body. However, to his great horror he found the body of his own father, John Scott Harrison, who was a son of William Henry Harrison, ninth President of the United States. Needless to say, the fact that this man

was the son of an ex-president caused the newspapers of the country to be full of the account and aroused public sentiment against the faculty of the medical school.

Although the practice of grave robbing brought medical schools and their faculties into disrepute with the public whom they served, the aroused public sentiment eventually resulted, in most states, in their enactment of laws which provided adequate supplies of dissection material from unclaimed pauper dead. The first state to enact such a law was Massachusetts (1831), followed soon after by New York.

In the Journal of the Proceedings of Convention of Physicians of Ohio, held in Columbus, January 5, 1835, appears the following resolution: "Resolved, That a committee of three members be appointed to report upon the expediency of memorializing the Legislature on the subject of legalizing the study of Anatomy. Drs. Kreider, Mitchell, and Cooper were appointed said committee." That the efforts of this committee were of little avail is evidenced by the fact that it was not until March 25, 1870, that a bill to encourage the study of Anatomy was introduced into the Ohio Legislature. This bill was enacted by the fifty-ninth General Assembly into Ohio Law, 67-25. It stipulated that it shall be lawful to deliver to the professors of medical colleges and to members of county medical societies, that are auxiliary to a state medical society, the remains of any deceased person for the purpose of medical and surgical study, provided that: (1) said remains shall not have been interred; (2) if remains not desired for interment by any relative, or friend, or county or township officer within twenty-four hours after death; (3) if remains may be known to have relatives or friends, they must have consented; (4) if remains are not detained for debt, or as a witness, or on suspicion of crime, or are not of any traveler or stranger, or have expressed a desire that their body be interred; (5) if remains be subsequently claimed by relative or friend they shall be given up to said persons for interment; (6) if remains be decently interred in some public cemetery after they have answered the purpose of study; and (7) if remains be used in this state only. The penalty for violation of the provisions of this law was a fine

not to exceed one thousand dollars and imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year in a county jail.

THE AMENDED LAW

On February 19, 1881, this law was amended and codified as R.S. section 3763, which provided that the superintendents or directors of all public institutions, supported by public expense, in possession of bodies not claimed or identified and which must be buried at the expense of the public shall, on the written application of professors of anatomy in any medical college or the president of any county medical society, deliver to such professor or president for the purpose of medical or surgical study or dissection such bodies after 24 hours from death. The present law, section 9984 G.C.O., was passed April 5, 1898, the general provisions of which are essentially similar to those in amended section 3763.

Thus, finally, as a result of legislative action and of a gradual enlightenment of public opinion, the "barred road to anatomy" has been given a wide clearance for the medical student of the twentieth century to wend his weary way.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Baldwin, J. F.: "Grave Robbing," OHIO STATE MEDICAL JOURNAL 32 (8): 754-757, Aug., 1936.
2. Ball, J. M.: RESURRECTION DAYS, LECTURES ON THE HISTORY OF MEDICINE AT MAYO FOUNDATION, pp. 99-130, W. B. Saunders Co., 1933.
3. Corner, G. W.: CLIO MEDICA. A SERIES OF PRIMERS ON THE HISTORY OF MEDICINE, vol. III, ANATOMY, Paul B. Hoeber, Inc. 1930.
4. Forman, Jonathan: THE WORTHINGTON MEDICAL COLLEGE, OHIO STATE ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL QUARTERLY 50:373-379, 1941.
5. Hunter, R. A.: A SHORT HISTORY OF ANATOMY, John Bale, Sons and Danielsson, Ltd., London, 1925.
6. Keen, W. K.: A SKETCH OF THE EARLY HISTORY OF PRACTICAL ANATOMY. Lippincott & Co., 1874.
7. Kelly, H. A.: THE BARRED ROAD TO ANATOMY, JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL BULLETIN 19: 196-201, July, 1908.
8. Krumbhaar, E. B.: "Early History of Anatomy in the United States," ANNALS OF MEDICAL HISTORY 4 (3): 271-286, 1922.
9. Robinson, G. C.: "Development of Grave Robbing in England," JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL BULLETIN 16: 42-45, Feb., 1905.
10. Roughead, William: THE ENJOYMENT OF MURDER--"The Wolves of the West Port," Sheridan House, N. Y., 1938.
11. Singer, Charles: THE EVOLUTION OF ANATOMY, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd., London, 1925.
12. THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF MEDICINE, vol. 1, Brown Publishing Co., Blanchester, O., 1934.

